

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, SEPTEMBER 19, 1878.

The Week.

THE frantic mob which nominated Butler for Governor of Massachusetts at Worcester, on Tuesday, was repudiated by the Democratic State Committee, and was not a convention of the machine, but it was made up of undoubted Democrats, representing Democratic constituencies, and probably comprised a majority of the regularly-elected delegates, and if so was a real convention of the party. The attempt of the State Committee to pass upon credentials with reference to whom the delegates were to vote for, rather than to whom they represented, was a desperate resort to defeat the will of the majority of the party, and cannot be defended. This trick, characteristic of machine politics, was met by one not less characteristic of the burly Essex statesman: his adherents early forced the doors of the hall of the Convention or scrambled up ladders at the rear windows, and held possession against the threats and entreaties of the mayor, who feebly reported to the State Committee that the hall could not be cleared without danger of bloodshed. The Committee thereupon, unable to obtain another hall, voted to postpone the Convention until September 25, and hold it in Faneuil Hall. Butler, therefore, remained master of the field and has secured the real nomination of the party, whatever "the aristocrats" may attempt at Boston. His course may alienate some votes, but he has succeeded in making a wide breach between the rowdy element and their respectable leaders, and attaching the former to his cause. The platform contained no financial plank, but a very strong one upon the "Great Fraud," and denounced the practice of making the poor man prove his right to vote at the polls. The whole interest centres in Butler himself, and the platform is a mere adjunct. The ceremonies appropriately closed with an address by Kearney in the evening.

One of the most trenchant and thorough exposures of Butler as a political charlatan appeared in the *Boston Advertiser* on Saturday from the pen of Mr. William Endicott. Most of the letter is devoted to State politics, but the close deals with Butler's position on national questions. By way of illustrating the injustice of not taxing the Government bonds, which were such excellent security as compared with business enterprises that were heavily taxed, the General told one of his audiences that he was "the foolish proprietor" of a mill which had "to squeeze down the laborer" in order to make 10 per cent. on the capital invested. Mr. Endicott shows that the old patriot has actually received an average of 26½ per cent. per annum from his mill during the last sixteen years, pocketing 11 per cent. in 1877. He also shows that he voted against the taxation of District of Columbia bonds, of which he is, or was, a large holder; that he voted and spoke (June 13, 1870) in favor of making the four per cents payable in coin, and at the same time said that he thought the greenbacks should be paid in gold. Mr. Endicott ought to have remarked here that this was a retreat from Butler's greenback position of 1868, which he found did not take well. In June, 1870, he also explained lucidly the theory on which the bonds were exempt from taxation, saying:

"By exempting these bonds from taxation *we discount our taxes in our interest*. We say, as we have a right to say, if you will lend us money we *will agree* that no authority under the Government shall tax the income or the interest or the principal of the money loaned. And that *enters into the contract*; it is a part of the consideration. *That holds us, and ought to do so.*"

If it be asked how a man with a political history of this kind can face audiences with the doctrines he now preaches, the answer is

that a large body of the voters do not seem any longer to care anything about consistency or character as long as the candidate seems likely, from whatever motive, to be able and willing to carry out all their wishes, and protect what they believe to be their interests. Nothing in Butler's career, for instance, surpasses in brass Mr. W. D. Kelley's going about exposing the fraud and secrecy of the Demonetization Act of 1873, which he had himself examined and reported on as Chairman of Committee and had supported as demonetization in a speech; or Mr. Sherman's behavior, who put the bill through in the Senate, and knew all about it and kept silent about it during the agitation. The fact is, that the silver movement of last year was as good a school as the most rascally and crazy Greenbacker could have got his education in. It gave him his morality and his political economy all ready for use. Mr. Murat Halstead has, as we suggested, very properly gone to Europe, and will probably remain until the present trouble blows over; but Mr. Medill is still here, and if he remains will have double work to do trying to get the inflationists to be satisfied with the "Fathers' Dollar."

The Massachusetts Greenback Convention, which met on Wednesday week, showed the existence of a full-grown party under more skillful leadership than has yet been evinced in Greenback canvasses. There was a machine which turned out organization nomination, and platform, not, it is true, without some rattling and vigorous opposition from those who wished their own individual insanities made main issues, but still with complete success. The platform itself makes an attempt at reasonableness, and, by its framing, avoids some leading objections. It declares that bonds should be paid, but leaves the question of what they are to be paid in to the Supreme Court. It says nothing about the national banks. It demands absolute money whose volume shall be maintained at a fixed rate per capita, not by any doubtful power already existing in the Government, but by Constitutional amendment. It demands also the repeal of the Resumption Act, issue of new bonds only by direct vote of the people, and the banishment from America of the "idiotic proposition" that gold and silver are fit for a basis of money. In this compound of political sagacity and insanity probably much is due to the hand of Butler, who received the nomination. This political skill, which the accession of such men as Butler, with their knowledge of methods and expedients, has brought to the party, is what has transformed it from aimless and ignorant discontent into a threatening danger. It not only has definite schemes before it, but it has learned from these willing and able teachers the way in which, by political manoeuvre, it may embody its schemes in legislation. The Massachusetts Convention shows more than any other that it is acquiring gradually the qualities which make a party to be feared.

No sharper contrast has been drawn between the political principles and methods of the Republican and Democratic parties than is afforded by their New Hampshire platforms. The Republicans, premising a "cordial" yet reserved support of the Administration, heartily commended its policy of resumption, declared it "to be beyond the power of the Government to impart value to irredeemable paper," and denounced "all efforts to delay the day of resumption and to inflate the currency as destructive of all business interests, and unwise, dishonorable, and fraudulent as public measures." The Democrats made use of their customary evasion and shuffling, and courted the Greenback element in a resolution as elastic and meaningless as they could form. This course inflicts on the cause of sound money a double blow in the division of its friends and the encouragement of its enemies. On the one hand, it is clear, from the melting away of their party in Maine, that the Democrats do not thus retain any doubtful inflation votes. The Greenbackers

know definitely what they want, and desire to have it definitely pledged to them. The delegate who moved to amend by demanding the taxation of all Government securities, the repeal of the National Bank and Resumption Acts, and the payment of bonds "in the moneys of the Government," better understood the temper of the dissatisfied. On the other hand, this temporizing does tend to keep in party lines the old and loyal Democrats who, but for party devotion, would vote the declared honest-money ticket, but who hope that "the Jackson Democracy" will weather this storm, and who are likely to find on the day after election that the younger generation has outrun them and has left their politics only an historic interest.

In Connecticut the Democrats, against the known opposition of Senators Eaton and Barnum, have followed the same suicidal plan, and have adopted a platform of bald inconsistencies and the most ludicrous verbiage. They affirm gold and silver coin to be "the most stable basis for the commercial necessities of the world," but denounce the whole financial policy of the Government which is slowly bringing us to that basis; they denounce especially the Resumption Act, but they leave all legislation upon it to the wisdom of Congress without a suggestion as to its character, and they condemn repudiation but declare that "whatever currency is issued should be for the benefit of the whole people." These resolutions were passed "as a whole" with neatness and despatch, neither Senator Eaton nor Senator Barnum being on hand to discuss or denounce them.

Secretary Sherman has been interviewed by a Greenback editor, and the report, which Mr. Sherman is said to have revised, is sufficiently remarkable. He laid it down that it was a mistake to suppose that a man could not be a Republican and a Greenbacker at the same time; that the two positions are perfectly compatible; that the Greenbackers have left the Republican party simply because "his financial policy has been misrepresented"; but "the misrepresentations will be cleared up" and then they will come back to the old party. He considers a currency issued by Government "superior and more economical" than national-bank notes, and the reason why he has been preparing to redeem the Government notes is, that he found a law on the statute-book when he took office commanding him to do so. But when "resumption is an accomplished fact" and "the country has settled down to a specie standard," there being no longer any occasion for the national banks, "they will be legislated out of existence." He owns no bonds, and, so far from "working in the interest of the bondholders," he has been from the very first trying to cut down their interest. "He has been abused pretty generally, but having laid down for his guidance the interests of the whole country, he does not permit harsh criticisms to keep him from sleeping." There is one point in his estimable character as a politician and financier to which the Secretary modestly refrains from calling attention, and that is his eminently catholic and progressive spirit. We doubt very much indeed whether it would be possible to concoct any financial doctrine or scheme which took votes from the Republican party, or seemed likely to take them, which he would not at last see his way to adopting and indeed claiming as his own. His plan of having the Government assume permanently the duty of issuing paper money, of which there now seems no doubt, has probably the seeds of endless trouble in it, for it means the introduction of the volume of the currency as an issue in every canvass.

He made in the course of the interview some observations on Mr. Eugene Hale's position. He expressed his surprise at this gentleman's defeat in a district in which there are so many workingmen, inasmuch as "he had been the most persistent man in Congress in getting work for them to do." "He was always," Mr. Sherman said, "getting appropriations for Government work in his district," and yet he was defeated, and this shows that "popularity is not to be made by getting appropriations for public works." This is hardly

the whole moral of Mr. Hale's misfortune, however. It teaches also that when a member of Congress gives himself up to this kind of work to such a point as to lead workingmen to think that this is what he is sent to Congress for, they reach the conclusion before long that one of their own number would do it as well or better. Mr. Hale's constituents have accordingly sent an ignorant working stone-cutter in his place. He will not serve the purpose as well as Mr. Hale, because he will not understand the forms of the House and will have no influence there, but the mistake is not an unnatural one for his supporters to make.

Secretary Sherman has one good defence against any misrepresentation of "his policy" regarding silver, viz., the difficulty of knowing what it is. He has just issued an order rescinding the previous one directing the payment of silver for greenbacks. This makes the fifth order he has issued in attempting to be "friendly to silver" since July 19. The first directed certain banks to be furnished with silver dollars on their application; but they were to distribute it as currency, and not let importers have it for customs duties. The second (Sept. 3) directed silver to be paid out in sums under \$10,000 in exchange for silver certificates; but it was still to be used as currency, and the importers were not to have any of it. The third (Sept. 7) directed it to be issued at the sub-treasuries to anybody for greenbacks. The fourth (Sept. 13) forbade such payment, on account of doubts of its legality. The fifth (Sept. 14) directs silver to be furnished free of expense to 120 national banks, on their application, for general use, and directs United States disbursing agents and paymasters to use silver dollars in their payments as far as possible, and Government employes who desire them in payment of their salaries may also have them. Would it not be a good plan to get the religious papers to recommend them to their subscribers as a good and safe investment?

The price of silver bullion in London fell during the week to 51½d. per ounce, and the bullion value here of the 412½-grain dollar fell to precisely 87 cents gold. In this market gold, which had fallen to 100½ because, under Mr. Sherman's earlier silver orders, it would be no longer needed for import duties, advanced to 100½ to 100½ when those orders were revoked. No mistakes of the Treasury, however, appear to check the sales of 4 per cent. bonds, and during the week another \$5,000,000 of 5-20 6 per cents was called for redemption. This makes a total of \$80,000,000 5-20s redeemed and notified for redemption since May 1 last.

The trade-dollar imbroglio thickens. Letters continue to pour into the Treasury Department enquiring why they are not redeemed by the Government, why the bankers do not take them on deposit, and why, seeing that they contain more silver than the "buzzard dollar" (the designation applied by indignant holders of the trade-dollar to the now standard dollar), they are not universally current. The New York Central Railroad now refuses to take trade-dollars for tickets or freight, but they are still current in some departments of trade, so that their quotable price is considerably above their bullion value. Consequently there is money to be made by bringing them from California, or even from China, and putting them into circulation. It is estimated that about three millions are now afloat, and an agitation has been started in the West to have them redeemed at par by act of Congress. This would be equivalent to buying silver bullion on Government account at about 58d. per ounce, its market value being below 52d. per ounce. As the Government makes no profit on the issue of trade-dollars, but merely stamps them and certifies their weight and fineness, it would be a promising speculation to the holders of silver bullion to have a law passed for their redemption at par, and to have the mints kept open for the coinage of new ones. This is substantially what is meant by those who are demanding free coinage of the "buzzard dollar."

The removal of Postmaster Filley has reminded the Republicans of Wisconsin, of the better sort, that they too have a Boss whom they could very well spare both from the mail service and the political management of the State. Postmaster Keyes will be remembered as one of the managers who had to choose between resigning their positions as directors of party caucuses and conventions and relinquishing the offices under the Government, in obedience to the President's order. He chose to hold on to his post-office, in the belief that retirement from the public gaze would not absolutely destroy his political authority. The event seems to have justified his calculations, for the Ring of which he was the chief still keep their hold on the party, and have secured the renomination of all the corrupt Wisconsin representatives in the late disreputable Congress, while the Boss is not very secretly bargaining with them for the place in the Senate on which the Hon. Matt. Carpenter has also fixed his eye. Whether a postmaster who ostensibly conforms to the President's order, and whose public appearances are as innocent as the making of "agricultural addresses," is liable to the stroke which has just overtaken Filley, we do not profess to know. The official glosses upon the order have left so little force and meaning in it that it might seem tyrannical to decapitate a postmaster for seeking to become senator. All the same, the President would probably earn the gratitude of Wisconsin Republicans by making an example of Boss Keyes, without reference to any other consideration than that they are completely in the latter's power.

The charges which it is said are to be preferred against the Sheriff, County Clerk, and Register in this city, looking to the removal of these officers by the Governor, have not been specifically made public, but in general they are without doubt of the nature indicated in a report of a Committee of the Bar Association, in which it was stated that unauthorized or excessive charges or fees were exacted habitually by these officials; that the fact was notorious to the profession and within their daily experience, "so that no report could add to the general knowledge of the Association on that subject"; that instances of these practices were the fees and perquisites received upon attachments and replevins, oppressive exactions from those arrested for debt, fees for irregular searches, and for recording deeds and mortgages. The movement has apparently been under way for a considerable time, but is at last going to become effective. The abuses have long been notorious, but lawyers, not unnaturally, have preferred to suffer their clients to be victimized rather than be subjected to such annoyances as these officers would have in their power to inflict upon one who made trouble. The solution proposed by the Committee is the only rational one, and should have been made long since; that is, to make all offices supported by fees salaried, reduce the fees to the smallest and fewest possible, and to have these paid to a person specially appointed, who should give a receipt and pay them to the public treasury.

There have been few reports from the seat of war in Bosnia. While the losses from Gen. Zach's failure to take Bihatch, and other movements even when successful (estimated between Sept. 4-9 at 100 officers and 3,000 men), were fresh in the public mind, a very despondent feeling was caused by the announcement that Gen. Philippovitch was about to remove his headquarters from Serayevo to Brod, on the River Save. This turns out to be not quite correct. Only the headquarters of the Second Army Corps will be thus transferred, and Gen. Philippovitch will not accompany it in person but by a representative. The lack of fodder is assigned as a reason for a retrograde movement of the cavalry. Whether Austria is for the present content with Serayevo as an outpost or not, the work in the rear has now become the chief concern of the campaign, and from Brod will doubtless be directed the combinations necessary to reduce the insurrection in Northern Bosnia. The capture by assault of Shamatz, on the Save, just below its junction with the Bosna, is reported, and the bombardment of Berka further down the same stream. General Szapary has again advanced, in conjunction with

reinforcements on his left wing, and Gradatchatz and Gratchanitz have both been occupied, the latter without opposition. The Austrians have burned some villages in the Banyaluka district and along the Save. Meantime the Government credit for the occupation is said to be nearly exhausted, and the opposition to voting any further appropriation is gaining strength in Hungary. The latest account of the death of Mehemet Ali at Diakova confirms the earlier one, that he was killed not while he and his escort were fighting in self-defence, but in true Turkish fashion, after having fled from a burning house and taken refuge in a shed. The Albanian tumult is growing, and emissaries are said to have been despatched to Epirus to excite hostility to annexation to Greece. They can safely count upon the sympathy of the Porte.

The Russian troops in front of Constantinople, which it is now ascertained mustered full 80,000, have begun to retire. Half have already embarked, and the remainder are to withdraw into Eastern Rumelia, which they are to occupy for some months, while the government of the province is being organized. In the meantime the negotiations between Sir Austin Layard and the Porte about the reforms in Asia have been going on swimmingly, but have a comic side. The Porte has been found not only ready but eager for reform, and the reforms suggested by the British Minister are luckily the very ones the Turks were themselves thinking of, namely, police, decent roads, and tolerable courts of justice, or, in other words, a fair amount of protection for life and property. These little changes will, however, they say, cost \$30,000,000 merely to begin, and they propose that England should advance this sum on the surplus of the Cyprus revenues. This seems to have been too much even for the English minister, and he returned a peremptory refusal. There is probably nobody now left who would entrust the Turks with any sum, however small, for the purposes of "reform," and it remains to be seen how the difficulty will be got over. No progress has been made in the settlement of the Greek question. Germany and France are disposed to interfere, but England is opposed.

An extraordinary and unlooked-for change has been made in the government of Egypt by the complete surrender to the state by the Khedive of his vast private landed property, amounting directly to 1,000,000 acres, or directly and indirectly to one-fifth of the soil, and all cultivated by forced labor, and largely acquired by outrageous oppression of individuals. Besides farming on a great scale, he manufactured on a scale still greater, owning numerous sugar, cotton, and tobacco factories. He began in 1863 with a debt of \$20,000,000, but he has worked so well as a borrower that he now owes \$535,000,000, and the population only amounts to 5,000,000. It is needless to say, too, that he has lost money in all his industrial enterprises; so that in surrendering his private property, and appointing a Constitutional Ministry, with Nubar Pasha at the head of it, and Mr. Rivers Wilson, the English financier, as Minister of Finance, he is virtually going into bankruptcy. In the language of our time, having suffered enormously from "shrinkage," he has "gone into liquidation." He accompanied his surrender with a little speech in which he said that Egypt was to be African no longer; it was hereafter to be administered as a European state.

The debate in the Reichstag on the Anti-Socialist Bill began on Monday, and was opened by Herr Bebel in a manner sufficiently trying to the Government, for he enlarged upon its relations with the Socialists in former years when in need of an ally, and brought forward the evidence. He was replied to by Count Eulenburg, who had reason to know all the facts in the case and on that account was disabled from making an effective denial. This was reserved for Bismarck himself the next day, and his denial was emphatic and categorical, and included any connection whatsoever with Lassalle. He denounced the Socialists as a gang of bandits, for which he was in vain called to order by Bebel. The bill was finally referred to a committee of twenty-one.

THE MAINE ELECTION.

THERE have been numerous signs during the past two or three months that many of the Republican leaders were beginning to see the importance of the financial question. The late speeches even of Mr. Blaine have contained no trace of reliance any longer on the Southern troubles, and have been devoted almost wholly, and in language of unusual clearness and resolution, to the defence of the national credit. But neither he nor any of the other prominent members of the party were probably prepared for what has just happened in Maine—a Republican defeat by means of a great inflationist vote; or, in other words, the encouragement of the Butler movement in Massachusetts, and of the Greenback movement all over the country, by an unexpected display of strength by the party of repudiation and financial disorder in one of the oldest and most reliable Republican States, and a New-England State to boot. A more sobering incident, or one better calculated to promote reflection, could not, in fact, have befallen “the grand old party.” One has only to take up any faithful Republican paper and read a Republican speech since last week to suspect that the organization is undergoing a veritable change of heart. To be sure, the House of Representatives and the Senate are lost beyond doubt, and the Presidency is very likely in 1880 to go too, and it is a great pity that things should have reached this pass before the conversion was accomplished. But parties are very like men in the matter of abandoning evil ways. Some men grow better under preaching, but only very few; the greater number only mend under actual experience of the consequences of their folly or sin. “Reform within the party,” as long as the party is in no danger of loss of power, is, as we have often pointed out, a dream. No such process has ever occurred. Parties which have once gone astray, and for whose idle hands Satan has found mischief to do, are reformed in the last resort and made to feel once more the pulses of their earlier and better life by having the offices taken away from them, and being compelled to lay hold of the living questions of the day in order ever to get them again.

The Republican party has been brought to its present plight by the negro vote at the South. Once the idea was conceived of diverting this vote from its first and legitimate object of giving the Southern whites a motive for respecting the negro's rights and cultivating his good will, and making it, under carpet-bag superintendence, a means of securing blind support for the Republican party in the Congress, the ruin of the party began. Blind support—that is, the support of a “brute vote” which does not reason, which simply loves and fears or hates—ruins any party by destroying its sense of responsibility. It has ruined the Democratic party in this city. As soon as the party leaders have only to look into the census returns in order to see what their vote in any particular State or district is sure to be, they get into the state of mind of a cashier who has been informed by his employers that vouchers for his disbursements will no longer be required of him. With the negro vote to count on, and outrages on negroes to furnish the warp of party platforms and stump speeches, there appeared to the Republican chiefs little need to trouble their heads about the new problems which the steady growth of the community was constantly raising, or to take note of the needs of the new generation which has come on the stage since the war. For eleven years, therefore, after the surrender at Appomattox a man could be a good Republican by merely distrusting the South and by believing in “outrages.” As long as he could show this test of his orthodoxy he was welcome to hold any opinions he pleased with regard to currency, taxation, civil-service reform, the public credit, public improvements, the relations of the Government to corporations and wages, and all the other questions which the rising tide of trade, industry, and population was pushing into prominence. On these no debate, about these no enquiry or concern, and no attempt to mould public opinion or to save the working classes from the snares of demagogues and firebrands. It is ten years since that old scapegoat Butler, whom Republican papers are now at a loss for

epithets to describe fitly, began his assaults on the public credit, without calling forth a word of party censure and without any loss of party standing. It is only two years since Republican Senators were stumping his district for him, and waving the “bloody shirt” in his honor. The party has been steadily losing ground under these tactics, and yet so hard is it for its chiefs to read the lesson of its decline that within one year many of them could think of no better remedy than trying to put General Grant back in the Presidency, to save them from the Communists and reward him for behaving so well in European dining-rooms.

During all this time there has been a steady growth of sentiment hostile to rational and honest finance. The attempts of leading politicians in both parties to avoid taking decided ground on the currency and the public credit, and to get rid of these and cognate questions by means of compromises and evasions, and vague and high-sounding declarations, has naturally promoted the success of those who have been engaged in persuading the less intelligent and reflective voters that there are no laws of finance, and that in this field anything may be safely done or attempted which the legislature chooses, and that no experience of other countries or ages furnishes us with a guide for our course. Probably nothing did more to spread and strengthen this view than the silver legislation of last winter, which a good many sensible men really supported in the belief that it would satisfy the inflationists and prevent further attacks on public and private credit. About bi-metallism and the double standard there is, of course, plenty of room for honest difference of opinion; but the misfortune of the silver legislation was that it was carried by arguments of which not one-tenth dealt with theories of finance at all. The other nine-tenths were either denunciation pure and simple of all creditors, or attempts to prove that the power of the Government over the money of the country was unlimited, and might be used for the promotion of any notions of justice which the majority happen to entertain. Many of those who got these arguments up fondly hoped that when silver was remonetized they would be laid aside as useless. The fact is, however, they can be applied nearly as well to any kind of money as to silver, and have since December last been wielded vigorously and effectively in support, not of ten per cent. depreciation of the measure of value, but in support of any depreciation the condition of the country seems to the majority to call for. Moreover, there is no likelihood that the movement in favor of wild-cat experiments in finance will cease until it is met and beaten by a party which makes that its main issue, and is united on it. It cannot be, and will not be, put down or its promoters disheartened by a party which is occupied with something else, or is ready to compromise on it, or in whose ranks all sorts of opinions on it are current, and no opinion lasts over a week. All money questions in politics have a fascination for the ignorant and discontented which no other questions ever have, because they promise an immediate improvement in each man's private affairs. A man who has once got it into his head, therefore, that he can get money out of the Treasury to pay his debts with or lighten his labor with, will never give up the pursuit till he is met by a man as determined and sincere as himself. He cannot be turned aside or disenchanted by hemming and hawing, or by suggestions that, though there is a good deal in what he says, he is asking too much. There is no middle ground in the matter, and there is no room for experiment. We cannot in this country arrange so as to have the Government take care of people a little; we must make up our minds either that every American shall take care of himself and carry on his dealings with coin with which the Government has nothing to do but weigh and stamp it, or we must be ready to go the whole distance and turn the State into national workshop or vast almshouse. The fight will not end until it is made plain to the demagogues and disorganizers, and their followers, that the majority has made up its mind that no such experiments shall be tried on this soil, and has announced this decision in unmistakable terms at the polls.

The indications now seem to be that the Republicans have at last come to a full comprehension of the situation, and have resolved to

give up trying to manufacture issues, and have taken up that which the times and the public enemy present. General Garfield's speech in Boston the other night, which, as a piece of sound political exposition, has rarely been surpassed, dealt solely with the questions of which everybody is thinking and on which the peace and prosperity of the country turn, and we have no doubt the other party orators will follow his example. In other words, he has set "the keynote of the campaign." He took up one by one the fallacies which have been during the past five years secretly ravaging the fabric of our society while we were mourning over the woes of the estimable Kellogg and Packard and Pinchback, and produced the happiest exposures of their folly. Nothing neater or more effective than his explanation of the "non-exportability" of the greenback has been heard for a long time in political oratory—that it was non-exportable for the same reason that damaged flour, rancid butter, and addled eggs are non-exportable. His plea for the honest discharge of the public obligations was solemn, but too solemn it could not be: for the attack now made on the public credit is not aimed at that simply. If it were successful it would bring down also the things on which the public credit rests, and of which it is but the product—the confidence of man in man, which makes trade and industry possible; the steady and trustworthy administration of justice, which is the first condition of our material growth; and the national fame and repute, regard for which has thus far furnished one of the strongest checks on the enterprise of the unprincipled and reckless portion of the population.

"THE POOR MAN" IN POLITICS.

THE growth of the greenback movement, the success of persons like Butler—if not in capturing high offices of state, at least in securing the confidence of large masses of the people—the increasing tendency among voters of all classes to rely on the Government for aid in growing rich or avoiding poverty, the gross absurdity of the remedies for distress produced during the last year in the speeches and platforms of "labor reformers" and inflationists, is naturally suggesting the question, What is to be done to prevent a recurrence of these outbursts of folly? A good many people satisfy themselves with the reflection that they will cease with the return of "good times," but it is as well to remember that in a certain sense, which may be called the American sense, the times will probably never be as good again as they have been. That is to say, although trade and industry may grow to vast proportions, and the accumulations of capital be unprecedentedly great, the distribution of wealth is never likely to be as satisfactory hereafter as it has been. One of the peculiarities of the United States hitherto has been the extreme shrewdness of the population, and times are never very bad or long bad among a shrewd people. Almost every American voter in the Northern States used to bring to the transaction of all business a fund of common sense which never failed him, and he did not separate political business from other business. He did not attend the town meeting with one set of ideas about the way money ought to be made and spent, and then go to his store or farm with another set. It is true the early history of the country was marked by great delusions about paper money; but then all countries passed through delusions about paper money down to the beginning of the present century, and these were, of course, more mischievous and pronounced in poor communities than in rich ones. Sound public finance may indeed be said to be the product of the last seventy years. It has come in with the growth of trade and commerce and the introduction into politics of commercial methods and ideas, and it may be truly said that no juster views of the proper relations of the Government to the currency have been held anywhere than were embodied in the creed of the Democratic party in its earlier days, and that no better system of banking has been devised anywhere than that which was set up in this State in 1838.

But a great change has taken place in the character of a considerable portion of the population. It is not as shrewd and intelli-

gent or familiar with business as it used to be, nor as prudent and calculating, and it has to contend with keener competition and greater pressure of numbers on subsistence than formerly. It has, therefore, less of the qualities by which laborers grow into capitalists, or, in other words, has less providence. With it, therefore, times are always hard. A laborer who saves nothing, or a farmer who cannot make ends meet, or borrows more money than he can manage, is not cheered by the favorable bank and custom-house returns. In other words, our shiftless and ne'er-do-well class has been greatly increased since the outbreak of the war, and is likely to remain and increase still. What is worst, however, is that this class is likely to give more attention to politics as a remedy for its troubles than it has ever done before, because the greater magnitude of the Government and the more extended exercise of its powers have removed it further away in the popular imagination, and made it easier for the voter to fancy it a separate person, with unknown resources and capacities, which might be used for his benefit without expense to him. For all these reasons, no return of commercial or manufacturing prosperity is likely to take "the poor man" out of politics. He has got in, and he is likely to remain there; and we shall have hereafter constant legislation, or attempts at legislation, for his benefit both in Congress and the State legislatures, and constant enquiries into his condition, and efforts to find out and bring to justice the wicked persons who are engaged in oppressing him; and the more he is coddled in this way the more oppressed he will feel. The more the legislature occupies itself with his case—whether the interest be real or feigned—the more outrageous his treatment will seem to him to be; and as his groans grow deeper the demagogues and quacks will gather round him in greater and greater numbers. By himself he would perhaps not be hard to manage, but the desire of being "helped," and of having life made easier, is very contagious. As soon as out-door relief begins to be administered without much enquiry, it is always found that large numbers of people in comfortable circumstances are eager to get a share of whatever good things are being distributed among the paupers. So, also, whenever it appears likely that there is to be anything done by Government for the poor man who has nothing, it is usually found that a great many people who are not very poor, but would like to have their chance in the "grab-bag," are ready to back him up and declare that his condition is a reproach to our civilization: that he ought to have a loan from the Treasury without interest or security, or a farm, or a mule; and so we get a "greenback party" or "labor party," one-half of whom are not suffering at all and have their tongue in their cheek when not shouting.

A good deal can be done to restore the old spirit of common sense and self-reliance by better teaching in the public schools on the simpler points of public economy. It is surely a reproach to our system of education that any body of men knowing enough to draw a platform should be willing to declare, like the Massachusetts Nationals the other day, that the use of gold and silver as a standard of value was "idiotic," and call for the substitution of printed pieces of paper as something more stable. The more complicated and disputed economical problems it would be inexpedient or useless to make the children solve, but against all those errors which arise from not thinking things out every boy and girl ought to have school thoroughly protected. The relations of labor and capital, and the function of money, are among the things about which people fall into delusions, in a large number of cases, simply because they have never worked over their phenomena with the aid of a friendly critic or objector, such as a teacher would be. Two-thirds of the visionaries who produced their plans before the Hewitt Committee were evidently suffering simply from the want of talk with some rational person, as was shown by the confusion which overtook them when Mr. Hewitt began to raise objections. Every boy ought to be familiar at school with the obstacles in the way of every plan of social regeneration produced by the Greenbackers and Labor Reformers within the past ten years, because the plans are all old or well known. Take the case of the exemption of the United States

bonds from taxation. This is a strong point now with all the Green-back demagogues, and makes an impression on their audiences which seems to indicate the absence of the most elementary knowledge about the nature of contracts, the conditions of public credit, and about the provisions of the United States Constitution with regard to taxation. But every boy and girl of twelve in the common schools ought to know all about the mode and terms on which a Government loan is made. So also the success of the "flat-money" idea is due to total ignorance of the history of paper-money experiments, short and simple as it is, and also of the three reasons why mankind have clung to gold and silver as measures of value. The fault of most of the elementary books on political economy is that they attempt to cover too much ground, and a good deal of it disputed ground, which has no immediate bearing on politics. What is needed for the purposes of political safety is very clear and thorough drilling in early years about two or three things—the source of wages, the source of capital, and the relations of the Government to money. It will be a great pity if the present crisis passes away without originating some reform in this direction, and if this reform be prevented by any notion that the delusions now raging are going to disappear from our politics very soon, or ever disappear completely.

THE RAILWAY GRIEVANCE IN PENNSYLVANIA.

THE powers of railway corporations, and the manner in which these powers are exercised, seem to form an important issue in the political campaign now in progress in Pennsylvania. The present complaint is not a new one. It is simply the charge of discrimination between patrons which has for many years formed one of the staple accusations against railway officials all over the land. But at this time, in Pennsylvania, the charge is formidably backed and forcibly presented, and is quite defiantly admitted by the offending companies. Almost the entire "producing interest," as it is styled in the petroleum trade, has united in an organization for the purpose of securing justice and the protection of the State, through its courts and executive, against what is alleged to be an oppressive and unlawful combination between the railway companies and a single aggressive and powerful shipper in whose favor exclusive and destructive discriminations are avowedly made. The producing interest embraces directly from 5,000 to 7,000 persons—as owners or partial owners of wells—but its good or ill fortune affects all who are employed in connection with it, such as drillers and pumpers, and also a large mercantile interest engaged in furnishing provisions and supplies of all kinds to the employers and their men. It probably would not be extravagant to estimate the number of voters whose prosperity depends directly upon a profitable price for crude petroleum as possibly 20,000. This is a very dangerous number to be not only dissatisfied but well organized for the express purpose of removing through political measures the cause of their dissatisfaction. The counties in which this population chiefly resides are usually Republican, and it is unfortunate for that party that its most conspicuous manipulators or managers are known to maintain relations of marked friendliness with the railways, and to have last winter quietly defeated at their instance every measure urged upon the Legislature by the producers. Both parties are at present seeking to allay the justly incensed feeling which prevails throughout the oil counties. Each protests itself the only friend of the producers, and each attacks the other with great vehemence on platforms and in speeches. Promises of future protection are very abundant on both sides.

The production of petroleum has attracted many men of very marked ability who have achieved honorable successes in other walks of life, so that when a cause for action arises sufficiently great, there is no lack of competent advisers or capable leaders. The tendency of the business seems to be to segregate its followers, and to incline each man to keep as much to himself as possible. Organization for joint action is therefore a work of much difficulty, and requires not only a peculiar fitness for the task on the part of those who lead in such a movement, but also a provocation of really vital importance. The producers early this year formed a local association in each special district, and care was taken to exclude from membership all lukewarm parties. These local bodies finally so multiplied that a general congress of delegates from each was held, which, before adjournment, framed a plan for a Permanent General

Council, the members of which were chosen by the smaller bodies. This central body, which has its headquarters at Titusville, has displayed remarkable prudence, great, well-directed, and well-organized activity. It has made few public utterances, but has done much quiet work, some of which has been already fruitful in results, and much of which has been merely preparatory or educational. All of its public appearances have been temperate, both in accusation and in demand. Its course has been remarkably free from anything emotional or spasmodic, and has been marked by that sort of steadfast, patient, and persistent purpose which the Anglo-Saxon, at his best, always displays in grave public emergencies. The Council have recently presented a formal appeal to Governor Hartranft asking his interference as the State executive in their behalf. They precede their memorial with extracts from the Bill of Rights and the Constitution, and then proceed with a clear and able presentment of their grievances. The charges and some of the sustaining evidence are presented in historical order, and the narrative, which is one of great injustice, constitutes altogether the most precise and effective indictment against the misuse of railways which has been yet offered to the country.

Governor Hartranft, with his usual prudence, has taken time and occasion to satisfy his mind upon the case presented, and has finally caused one decisive step to be taken: his attorney-general has applied for a writ of *quo warranto* against one of the corporations involved, which is to be shortly heard. He is not known to have as yet taken any steps against the trunk railways, which are the chief offenders. Some distrust his sincerity, and fear his activity may go only far enough to delude, and that after November it will drag or wholly cease. Those who are most familiar with his good judgment and honesty of purpose, however, entertain no such apprehensions. They are rather disposed to think that greater familiarity with this particular case and kindred cases will incline him to accept a prominent part in seeking and securing efficient and radical remedies. His recent course has undoubtedly done much towards rehabilitating the Republican party among producers, and may secure the election of Hoyt as his successor. On the other hand, the Democratic manager of the campaign has just delivered, in a recent speech, a strong declamation in behalf of the oil interest. The chiefs of the Producers' Council, however, are not men apt to be affected by mere words. It will be essential that the Democrats should evince their sincerity by some actual and serviceable deeds before the election. This may not be easy to do. It is quite possible, however, that the Democratic leaders may find some mode of accomplishing what they can hardly fail to view as a necessity, and that the result may be a complete overthrow for a time of Republican power in that State, including the defeat of Cameron for Senator.

THE PARIS EXPOSITION.—VII.

FRENCH PAINTING.

PARIS, August 29, 1878.

IT seems from the letters of your well-informed correspondent in 1876 that the display of French pictures at the Centennial Exhibition was very limited and very unequal. Some of the older painters were represented there, and some of the younger, but more of each group seem to have been either badly represented, or not at all, than were to be seen in their strength and abundance. For example, it appears that there were no canvases of Jean François Millet, Théodore Rousseau, Daubigny, Corot, Laurens, Meissonier, nor Baudry. I take the letter published by you in your issue of 28th September, 1876, in which your correspondent positively names these and others as wholly absent. Well! the exhibit was indeed inadequate. One may have as many critical reservations as he pleases to make from the meed of praise rather freely awarded in France to each of the above-named famous artists, and yet feel that French art needs them all to represent it truly, and that without a study of their works one may fall into serious errors with regard to it. There are, indeed, some of these celebrated names which are not on the catalogue of this present Exhibition of 1878; but what odds, when those who are not there are absent because in the Luxembourg or the Louvre, so to speak—that is, absent from the Exhibition because having produced their important works before 1867, and therefore housed in more permanent quarters than those of the Champ de Mars. There are no pictures in the Exhibition by Millet or Rousseau, but there are pictures of the first in the Louvre and in the Luxembourg, and of the second in the Louvre; and an exhibition of works of the modern masters is open in the Rue Laffitte, where are twenty Rousseaus and sixty-one

Millet! So that the French school need not put itself out of the way to show itself in Paris. It is very much to be regretted that there was not made for Philadelphia by the French the same effort that the English made so successfully, and that the public of the American cities who know Gérôme and Bouguereau a great deal better than they know the real masters of the school, should not have had a little lesson in modern French painting.

Ingres, whom your correspondent also names as not represented at Philadelphia, who died in 1867, and whose portrait of Rivière in the Louvre is dated the year XIII. of the Republic, would have been admitted rather as an old master than a contemporary into any such collection. Delaroche also, who died in 1856, would hardly have come into an exhibition of to-day as a contemporary. But it must not be assumed that these two artists are looked upon here as old-fashioned—as of the last age. There is, indeed, more nominal than real allegiance to these two *ci-devant* rulers in art; the stronger of the modern historical painters are certainly not followers of Delaroche; and in nearly everything in which Ingres was thought to succeed there are men of the present day who are his superiors—in truth of conception, in color and quality, in everything except, perhaps, drawing of the human figure, and perhaps in that as well. His hold on modern art and living artists, so far as it exists, may be accounted for by the comparative excellence of the work done late in his life. Perhaps one would choose his early or his very late work in preference to that of middle life; certainly, whatever may be the value of the strange and yet fascinating work of his early manhood, the merit of his work since 1850 is not to be denied. The famous picture, "La Source," of which an etching is in the *Gazette des Beaux Arts*, and which has been engraved and photographed abundantly, has only just now been bequeathed to the nation by the Countess Duchâtel. It has temporary quarters in one of those rooms, opening on the Colonnade of the Louvre, which are always undergoing "changes of destination"; there it and another (the Sphinx, of 1808) hang side by side, and opposite to a large picture by Hans Memling and two by Antonio Moro—all five the gift of the same lady. This picture, "La Source," bears date 1856, and the visitor asks if it is possible that it was painted by a man seventy-five years old; for it is not weaker nor more mannered than the earlier works of the artist, but, on the contrary, looks strong and sincere beside them. It is not, however, an important step toward what is best in modern French art. The development has been and still is in other directions. Decamps and Delacroix, who died in 1860 and 1863 respectively, are much more truly the masters of those men of to-day who excel in that which is the excellence of the French school—*tone*. Delacroix, a most uneven workman, is seen to great disadvantage in the smaller canvases, in such as have the air of studies, in such as are to be seen—thirty-three in number—in the gallery of the Rue Laffitte. The two or three largest and most finished pictures in the Louvre can alone give any adequate idea of the combination of qualities which makes the value of his work—the depth and intensity of color, the admirable use of stuffs and such accessories, the luminous shadows, the powerful drawing when the fates will have it so, for even in the best pictures there is bad drawing curiously mingled with what is true and impressive. With Decamps it is different; his works, of much more uniform merit, ought to be studied by every one. It happens, unfortunately, that there are very few now within reach of the student.

Now, there is a painter evidently not much known outside of a certain group of admirers here in France, for your well-informed Philadelphia correspondent does not think necessary to name him, as absent or present at Philadelphia, who seems to reach heights of excellence in this same direction of splendid painting beyond his day, beyond his contemporaries, beyond Ingres, because superior in the mastery of abstract color; inviting no comparison with any artist except in the one matter of *tone*, but in that one able to bear comparison with any of his time. J. J. Henner is an Alsatian, and is of this generation, for he took the *Prix de Rome* in 1858. Like many another able French artist, he absolutely declines all subject, and paints effects merely, if one may judge by his work in the Exhibition. There are ten paintings by him, all in one gallery, and most of them grouped together. The largest is "La Femme au Divan Noir," from the Salon of 1869, and is a life-size painting of a nude woman asleep on a black couch—asleep, and therefore free from the open eyes of invitation which make M. Lefebvre's lady on the red couch something else than a mere study of color and form; without flowers or jewels or any accessory or adornment whatever. Apparently the lady is surrounded by hangings as black as the sofa, for all the shaded surfaces of the body and limbs have sombre grey reflections;

it does seem as if this were arranged purposely to increase the difficulty of the attempt to get beautiful color. The workmanship is curiously swift and broad, apparently careless, apparently hasty—hairs of the brush actually left sticking in the work; the color of the flesh seems to have been dragged, while wet, into the dark background, so totally without outline is the drawing when examined. The strange thing is the magnificent result, the warm and profound harmony of color, and the soft roundness of the body and limbs. Another picture, "Biblis changed into a Spring," is perhaps still more beautiful. In this the figure is much smaller, and is surrounded by a grey landscape. Right near it, on the same wall, hangs M. Garnier's "Favorite Sultana," and this is not a bad picture of the sort; but it is curious to compare them. The sultana is in open warm daylight, the glowing flesh is relieved against white and blue tiles and white drapery, and contrasted with splendid dark-red hair, and cool, distant shadows beyond. Biblis, in grey twilight, lies on greyish-green herbage, and so posed that much of the body is in deep shade. One picture is vivid to glance at, the other unusually sombre. But the Henner picture is a wonder of beauty and mellow warmth, the flesh is life-like, it comes into view from the half-light that surrounds it, the more lovely for its apparently retiring and sober gravity. To look first at one and then at the other is a valuable lesson in this matter of "quality" which the French artists seem to adore with rather too absolute a devotion.

Five of M. Henner's canvases are portraits. And it is precisely to such an artist as this, to a colorist, to a man who cares for his qualities and his tones, that one ought to go to have a portrait painted. Of what sort of consequence is a photographic "staring" likeness compared with beauty of result? But then a colorist does not need to "flatter" his sitter; he can invest his canvas with the necessary beauty without resorting to that vulgar device, and therefore has a chance to reach a real and profound rather than a merely superficial resemblance. One of these portraits is of a fair old lady, with the eyelids swollen and red as if with too-familiar tears. One is the head alone of a woman of fifty, of a complexion at once dark and pale; the head is modelled with strange-looking yellow brush-marks into a splendid thing as seen from four feet of distance. One is a lady standing, and seen to the knees, dressed for the street, with furs and an umbrella. Each one of these seems a model of what a portrait ought to be. It would be a curious subject of enquiry what M. Henner would do if he had splendid costume to deal with, not as a bit of archaeology or as studio-properties, but as the daily wear of the men and women who want their portraits painted. It would be curious, too, to enquire what Paul Veronese would have done *without* splendid costume; would he also have eschewed all subjects and have painted effects alone? For in Veronese's works we do not feel that the religious ideal goes for much; splendid composition was his joy; he painted the "Supper at the House of Simon" as Makart paints his triumphal processions and the like—the most evident difference, apart from the vast artistic superiority of the Italian, lying in the fact that Veronese's models were his fellow-citizens in their own dresses of every-day or festival, while Makart's are models dressed in costumes they do not even wear to masquerades, but put on and take off in the studio.

It should be kept in mind how much more common it is in France than we are apt to think for an able painter to aim avowedly at producing splendid effects at whatever price. It might be said of a great school here that it uses the external aspects of nature as a storehouse whence to draw the beauties in which it delights, and that "subjects" are unknown to it. What of Corot, for instance? It is evident to any person who cares for natural beauty at all that Corot does not try to paint nature. To hear certain criticisms upon Corot, you would think that he tried to represent nature and failed from ignorance or carelessness, but there are elaborate and highly-finished drawings of his to be seen now, in Paris, which disprove both accusations at once. He never would have been a draughtsman of the first force, but he might have been a much more faithful and truthful one than some famous men of the naturalistic school, had he chosen. If his trees, with trunks and limbs not badly indicated, look for the rest as if certain green clouds that had been floating in space had fixed themselves there in half-condensed masses, it is because he chose not to represent trees, but to make use of their roundness and their color. His trees are less absurd than many of Claude's, and show far more observation. Claude, indeed, is the master to whom he may be compared. Here in the Exhibition there are ten pictures by Corot, all together on one single screen, and they are well chosen. There are eighty-eight, all together, in the gallery of the Rue Laffitte. If it could be done, how fine it would be to get together in this thoroughgoing way the works of an

ancient master—say of Claude—and judge of him by the mass of his works! Judged in this way, Claude would no doubt appear more versatile than Corot, and his work more varied, and one would have to admit that the extraordinary monotony of Corot's work, the almost unvarying sameness of its principal aim for years together, is, so far as it goes, a confession of inferiority on the part of the painter. But, picture for picture, the choice would not be so easy. Here at the Exhibition Nos. 200 and 201, both of the Salon of 1875, hang one above the other. They are pictures of medium size, oblong landscapes, the first with a cool evening sky, called "Biblis," from the same nymph that M. Henner has painted, and who is doubtless being changed into a stream in the corner; the second with a warm sunset and dancing figures. They have no figure-drawing, nor accurate tree-drawing, nor faithful representation of anything on earth or in heaven, except light color; but they are lovely pictures. Such art is narrow, if you like, limited, unintelligent; tried by any intellectual standard whatever, it is even nonsensical. The one only message which the painter has for mankind is just "I imagined this harmony of colors and forms—and then this—and then this." It is therefore hardly necessary to enumerate the different works of this master. The titles are nothing, for the subjects are nothing. One picture only may be named as very different from the rest, "The Belfry of Donay," a grave little architectural study of great beauty, but hung too high to be fairly compared with the artist's other work.

In this frank acceptance of the conditions of his art, and deliberate choice, Corot seems superior to Théodore Rousseau, who never is clearly of one mind. His most striking work is not nature, nor a fair and square attempt at nature, but neither is it deliberate refusal to paint nature and a resolve to paint splendid decorative panels instead. On the other hand, Rousseau is incomparably more many-sided, more forcible and full of thought. The trees and rocks may not satisfy the student of tree-form and rock-structure, but they compose wonderfully; and then, through rifts in the rocky walls come gleams of pale horizon, and between gloomy trees are seen pale bars of twilight sky, of really tragic effect. There is a six-foot picture in the Rue Laflitte gallery, belonging to Mr. Edwards, which is of peculiar force and dignity, but it is not equal to some of the smaller ones in the power of giving pleasure. The charm of some of these small Rousseaus is very near akin to dislike—they are too stinging, too intense. It is doubtful whether another generation will care greatly for any except the few which, by a sort of fortuitous combination of qualities, are actually beautiful as well as vigorous and intense.

R. S.

Correspondence.

THE CROUCHING TENANTRY OF MASSACHUSETTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In referring to my recent article in the *North American Review* you ask what I mean by talking about "a crouching tenantry, toiling under absentee landlords" in Massachusetts. I am surprised at this question, and I think it tends to strengthen my position that the reformer is still needed. What I said about the land question and the condition of agriculture in Massachusetts is fully justified by facts which I find embodied in the second annual report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for that State, which the *Nation* (No. 310) summarized as follows:

"The part of the report, however, which of all is, in our opinion, the most remarkable, is that relating to agriculture in Massachusetts. It may be summed up in two words: rapid decay. Increased nominal value of land, higher rents, fewer farms occupied by owners, diminished product, general decline of prosperity, a more ignorant population, increasing number of women employed at hard cut loom labor (surest sign of a declining civilization), and steady deterioration in the style of farming: these are the conditions described by a cumulative mass of evidence that is perfectly irresistible, and that is unfortunately only too strongly confirmed by such details of census statistics as have been so far made public."

A more particular answer to the question propounded by the *Nation* may be found in a very able article in the *North American Review* for October, 1859, from which I quote the following extract, in which the writer is dealing with agriculture in the "older States," and of course including New England:

"Our farms in older States, instead of being divided and sub-divided as they ought to be, are growing larger and more unwieldy. The tendency of the times is unquestionably towards immense estates, each with a manorial mansion in the centre, and a dependent tenantry crouching in the shadows."

This was written nearly twenty years ago, and I am sure no well-informed man will deny that the "tendency" here spoken of has been steadily on the increase. It would be easy to adduce other and kindred facts, but I deem it unnecessary.

IRVINGTON, September 9, 1878.

GEO. W. JULIAN.

THE MEXICAN CALENDAR-STONE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Certain imputations having been brought against the undersigned in an article published on the 8th of August, in your paper, I have no doubt you will be so kind as to give space in your columns to the following lines, which contain my answer.

The writer introduces his article with the remark that in a lecture delivered, and afterwards printed, on the "Mexican Calendar-Stone," I was apparently mistaken in the assumption that I was the first after Gama in my interpretation of the monument, another gentleman, Mr. Chavero, of the Liceo Hidalgo of Mexico, so he continues, having published a pamphlet on the same subject as early as November, 1875. On a comparison made between the two pamphlets, the critic thinks he has detected that Mr. Chavero has "established in his discussion the same identical points" as I did in my lecture and pamphlet, and finds it "even singular and striking to what an extent the *cuaderno* of the Mexican scholar agrees, if not verbatim at least substantially, with Mr. Valentini's essay." By this statement, it is manifest to everybody who is able to read between the lines, an insinuation is formulated that I probably might have availed myself of Mr. Chavero's pamphlet, extracted the results which he has reached in his investigation, and brought them out before the public as if they had been the fruits of my own labor.

My answer, in brief, is as follows: It has happened more than once, in the history of scientific research, that two students, working independently of each other upon the same problem, have come to identical results and published them at the same epoch. The question of priority in invention or discovery being thereby raised, mutual agreement or public opinion, or even judicial intervention, must later determine upon whom the honor or the profit should be bestowed. Such is, however, not the exact form of the question that was suggested to the public. Though I concede that Mr. Chavero might have worked at the same time upon the same problem and published his results three years in advance of mine, I cannot concede that the gentleman, as was pretended, has given an interpretation of the Mexican monuments second to Gama, and prior to me; nor that the points which he has discussed in his essay, on the same subject, agree substantially with the points which I have established in my essay.

Should the question be followed up and the two essays be laid before an impartial judge conversant with the Spanish and the German, but not at all initiated into the meaning of Mexican hieroglyphics, he would come to the conclusion that Mr. Chavero from the *five* zones with which the monument is inscribed has only selected *two*, and made these two only a subject of his interpretation. He supposes a certain chronological account to be hidden in these two zones. He makes his calculation and gets a certain sum. He leaves the others out of his consideration. With great modesty, at the conclusion of the few pages dedicated to his discussion, he declares himself incompetent to solve the various riddles which, in addition, the monument apparently must still contain. Yet Mr. Chavero does not refer to any authentic source, nor does he afford any proof that he is correct in the interpretation of those symbols which enter into the above-mentioned account, and that these symbols should represent just that numerical value which he assigns to them. This preliminary evidence, according to the settled methods of conclusive demonstration, has not been afforded by Mr. Chavero. He, as was said, advanced a mere opinion on a few of the many subjects which start up before him who undertakes to interpret them. My interpretation is based upon conclusive evidences and goes over the *whole* ground of the monument. It embraces all the zones. It gives full evidence of the meaning of its multifarious details, and centres finally in the proof that the artist had the purpose of inscribing on it the symbols which the ancient Mexicans used for their very peculiar division of time, and that the last zone which girdles the monument contains a chronological record embracing the period from the year 1479 up to 231 A. D.

The main question, however, raised by the writer of the article is this. He finds it singular and striking to what an extent the *cuaderno* of Mr. Chavero agrees, if not verbatim at least substantially, with my essay. The impartial judge, of whom I spoke, will be puzzled at finding the grounds upon which this remark (I do not say imprudent or odious sugges-

tion) might be based. He rather will observe how widely I differ from Mr. Chavero just in those points which he had picked out for discussion. Mr. Chavero supposes an account to be hidden in the two zones. I prove an account to be hidden in all the five zones. Mr. Chavero reaches a sum in his account which looks so different from mine that even a school-boy would exclaim that it has as much resemblance to the other as a tiger to a rabbit. I leave further scrutiny to the impartial judge.

But at last there is, notwithstanding, one single point of identity between my statement and Mr. Chavero's. When giving the historical account of the monument, we both state that it was a sacrificial stone. Mr. Chavero found this statement in an author called Durán. I found it in another, called Tezozomoc. Both of us are guilty of having copied each a different author!

In the MS. which I am about to publish on the Calendar-Stone full credit is given to Mr. Chavero's studies. Should this gentleman himself feel injured or entitled to make charges against me, he will be his own and more competent champion than is the would-be critic of the article.

PH. VALENTINI.

ALBION, N. Y., August 31, 1878.

[We merely stated that Prof. Valentini erroneously supposed that, after Gama, no one had attempted an interpretation of the so-called "Calendar-Stone" at Mexico. His own words (page 14 of his 'Vortrag') are: "Until now Gama has been the first and only interpreter of this monument" (*Gama ist bis heute der erste und einzige Dolmetscher dieses Monumentes*). Knowing of Señor Chavero's investigations (which were published under date of November 1, 1875); knowing, also, that in his 'Calendario Azteca' that Mexican scholar attempted an interpretation of the stone, though in a manner different from that of Gama and of Prof. Valentini, we were certainly justified in the correction which we made upon the printed 'Vortrag,' and this quite apart from the value of Señor Chavero's interpretation.

Of the three attempts at explanation of the "Calendar-Stone," Gama's views must be abandoned, since they are based upon an erroneous conception of the nature of the monument. The two remaining authors have given us ingenious speculations; those of Prof. Valentini are, in point of sobriety, preferable to those of Chavero; but whether either of them will, finally, appear in the light of science as anything more than meritorious pastimes is yet far from being established. For ethnology and aboriginal history, we repeat, "the interpretations are the most immaterial parts of both papers." But, what is of very great value, and in regard to which we distinctly called attention to Señor Alfredo Chavero's labors, is the fact that the supposed gnomon is nothing but a stone of sacrifice—"la piedra del sol," the great and veritable "cuauhxicalli" of the ancient Mexicans. This discovery, which was mainly the result of a study of Durán's writings, Señor Chavero gave to the public two years and six months prior to Prof. Valentini. The latter somewhat indignantly asserts that his investigations are based upon the statements of Tezozomoc alone. We do not doubt it, but must remark that his knowledge of Tezozomoc's 'Crónica' appears to be very imperfect or superficial. His abstract from that author (on pp. 10 and 11 of the 'Vortrag') is an exceedingly incorrect version, coupled with fanciful and arbitrary accommodations. But, what is stranger yet, page 12 contains simply the essence of what Señor Chavero had already detailed on the second page of his 'Calendario Azteca,' including the Mexican scholar's important reference to that very Durán whom Prof. Valentini has not used for his investigations.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT & CO. announce 'The Life of Albert Gallatin,' by Prof. Henry Adams, and Gallatin's Writings, in three volumes, edited by the same scholar.—John Wiley & Sons issue directly the concluding portion of vol. ii. of Weisbach's 'Mechanics of Engineering,' translated, by arrangement with the author, by Prof. A. Jay Du Bois, of Yale College.—Henry Holt & Co. have brought out a translation, by Mr. John Durand, of Taine's 'French Revolution,' of which we have al-

ready reviewed the original (*Nation*, No. 681). It makes a condensed but comely volume of 356 pages and moderate price.—Estes & Lauriat's fall announcements include 'The Home Book of Poetry,' illustrated; 'French Pictures,' one hundred wood and steel engravings, the text by Dr. Colange; 'The Early Coins of America,' with heliotype plates, by Sylvester S. Crosby; Alfred Rambaud's 'Popular History of Russia'; and, to be issued by subscription, Durny's 'History of Rome'; Martin's 'Popular History of France'; 'Life Studies of the Great Army,' forty etchings by Edwin Forbes; 'Pioneers in the Settlement of America'; 'History of Middlesex County, Mass.,' by Samuel Adams Drake; and the 'History of Worcester County, Mass.,' by Rev. A. P. Marvin.—Charles Scribner's Sons will publish immediately in book-form the seething series of articles in the *Fortnightly Review* on 'The Political Adventures of Lord Beaconsfield'; 'Recollections of Writers,' by Charles and Mary Cowden Clarke; Vol. I. of the New Testament (Matthew, Mark, and Luke) in the 'Speaker's Commentary'; 'Discussions of Questions in Church Polity,' being selections from the late Dr. Charles Hodge's contributions to the *Princeton Review*; and a popular edition of the third series of Froude's 'Short Studies on Great Subjects.'—Those who are curious to see how an empire can be cut in pieces without "partition," as Lord Beaconsfield understands that word, should procure the September number of the *Geographical Magazine* (John Wiley & Sons). A map is given, on a generous scale, "to illustrate the Treaty of Berlin." This is done very effectively by red and blue lines drawn across the face of Turkey, and by the aid of a few explanatory words, such as "independent principality," "autonomous province," "accession to Montenegro, etc.," "to be occupied by Austria," "annexed to Russia." Side maps show Russia's new territory in Asia Minor and the relation of Cyprus to the mainland.—The trustees of the Johns Hopkins University have published, in a pamphlet of 42 pages, extracts from lectures on Medical Education delivered before the university in 1877-78 by Surgeon John S. Billings, U.S.A., whose competence to speak on this subject will not be questioned.—From the Hampton (Va.) Institute Press we receive Nos. I. and III. of their sanitary tracts designed for circulation among all classes that stand in need of hygienic information or reminder. The object is a good one, and the plan a copy of the work done by the English Ladies' Sanitary Association. Mrs. M. F. Armstrong writes well of Preventable Diseases; Miss Helen W. Ludlow, having the colored people in mind, of the Health Laws of Moses, in which a little theology is not improperly mixed with exhortations to cleanliness, etc. These tracts are issued at four cents apiece by the hundred.—The Art Students' League of this city reopens its classes on Monday, Sept. 30, with Mr. Wm. M. Chase as Professor of Drawing and Painting, Mr. Walter Shirlaw of Composition, and Mr. J. S. Hartley of Modelling. The League may be addressed at 108 Fifth Avenue.

—The eleventh annual report of the Trustees of the Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology equals, if it does not surpass, the preceding in interest and in value. Mr. Robert C. Winthrop's remarks at the first annual meeting, held in the new fire-proof building, put on record the circumstances attending the gift of Mr. Peabody. The curator's report gives an account of the removal and some hint of the richness of the collections. A long list of valuable accessions is appended. Dr. Charles C. Abbott continues his discussion of the palæolithic implements from the glacial drift near Trenton, N. J. There are also illustrated papers by Mr. Paul Schumacher, on the modes of manufacture of sundry articles by the former Indians of Southern California; by Dr. Edward Palmer, on cave-dwellings in Utah; and by John H. Blake, on a collection from a Peruvian cemetery, including several mummies, of which figures are given. The curator, Mr. F. W. Putnam, describes in separate papers the Indian manufacture of soap-stone pots in New England, and some fruitful researches of his own last summer in Tennessee among the mounds and graves of the so-called Stone-Grave aborigines of that region. His conclusions and those of his assistant, Mr. Lucien Carr, who has studied their crania, are, negatively, that this copper-using people never met the white man, and cannot be connected with the Natchez, Chickasaws, or Choctaws. From the illustrations it is evident that they had a good deal of artistic feeling and some of the forms of their pottery would bear imitating to-day. The *pièce de résistance* of the report is Mr. A. F. Bandelier's paper on the distribution and tenure of lands, and the customs with respect to inheritance, among the ancient Mexicans. If, from the nature of the case, can have but few readers, the learning evinced in it makes it certain that Mr. Bandelier will have but few critics. He finds that the aboriginal Mexicans had no notion of abstract ownership of the soil; that the right

of possession resided in the kinships without thought of alienation; that individuals might use but not own the land; that ownership pertained to no office; that official lands were set apart for the support of the official households, but independently of them; that conquest was not followed by annexation but by the exaction of tribute from definite tracts; and, consequently, that the principle and institution of feudality did not exist among them.

—"The visitor to Paris in 1878," writes a correspondent from London, "who was also a visitor to Paris in 1867, cannot but be struck by the difference of tone in the programmes presented for his consideration by the theatres of Paris at the two epochs. That form of theatrical entertainment which seemed so abundantly and so accurately to reflect the folly and the extravagance of the Imperial days, *opéra-bouffe*, is now wholly invisible to those who have accepted the invitation of the Republic. During my stay of four weeks in Paris not a single *opéra-bouffe* appeared on the bills of any Paris theatre. '*Orphée*,' it is true, was revived at the Gaieté as a spectacular piece a few days after I left. The Palais Royal and the Variétés were playing vaudevilles. The Bouffes was closed. At the Renaissance the successful '*Petit Duc*' of MM. Meilhac and Halévy, the authors of the '*Grande Duchesse*' and of the '*Belle Hélène*,' is avowedly an *opéra-comique*, and M. Lecoq's music is altogether within the limits set by Auber and Hérold; and at the Folies-Dramatiques the even more successful '*Cloches de Corneville*' has, as we know in New York, far more of the characteristics of the *opéra-comique* than of its extravagant younger sister. Whether this change, this real reform, is due to the advent of the Republic and of a consequent austerity of manners or not, it is welcome; and, although the '*Timbale d'Argent*' and a few other outrageous indecencies have come into existence since the fall of the Empire, it does seem as though the play-going Parisian public had experienced a change of heart. And, strange to say, when the visitor crosses the Channel he finds something of the same sort in England. Ten years ago most of the theatres in London were given up to loud sensation. Now the most exciting drama to be seen anywhere is the ubiquitous '*Uncle Tom's Cabin*,' in its new phase, with imported Jubilee singers and banjoists, fresh, I fancy, from New York. The merely sensational play has not wholly disappeared—it satisfies a certain portion of the theatre-going public too well to vanish utterly—but it has sunk to the subordinate position which it deserves. The most successful theatres in London are those aiming at the proper all-round presentation of comedy, and taking as their model the Gymnase or the Vaudeville of Paris. And from out of the empty and vapid burlesques—of which but one is now running—has been developed a genuine English comic opera, neither *opéra-bouffe* nor *opéra-comique*: the spirit of *bouffe* is foreign to English ways and almost equally strange, I fear, is the romantic grace of *opéra-comique*. The repertory of this new comic opera is not as yet very large, but as the practicability of the school has been shown its growth is assured. Some years ago Mr. Arthur Sullivan composed music for '*Box and Cox*,' a rearrangement by Mr. Burnand of the familiar farce; but in his setting of Mr. W. S. Gilbert's very amusing and genuinely comic '*Trial by Jury*' I think I see the first of the series. The success of this warranted both librettist and composer in aiming a little higher, and from one act they attempted two in the '*Sorcerer*,' and again in '*H.M.S. Pinafore*,' now acting at the Opéra Comique. Other composers, notably Mr. Clay and Mr. Cellier, have followed in the footsteps of Mr. Sullivan, but they have hardly been as fortunate in their librettists. '*Trial by Jury*' was a masterpiece as a book for a comic opera in one act, and '*H.M.S. Pinafore*;' or, '*The Lass that Loved a Sailor*,' is nearly as good. The foundation of the plot is to be found in one of the dramatist's '*Bab Ballads*'—in '*Captain Reece*, of the *Mantelpiece*,' if I mistake not. Mr. Sullivan's ambition, which leads him to compose oratorios and symphonies, does not prevent him from doing his best in the light and lively music of this little play, which is full of taking airs. But the success of the joint production is due even more to the dramatist, who has contrived a story simple and at the same time humorous and well fitted for musical treatment."

—No. 103 of the German pamphlets upon *Zeit- und Streitfragen* (questions of the day for discussion) is devoted to the "modern rage for monuments," and, while intended for a serious essay upon art, has its comic side. To judge, says the writer, from the passion for commemorating its distinguished men, the present generation, and especially the Germans, might be regarded as the most reverentially disposed of any people on record. Whether this is or not the principal motive of the gentlemen who display such wonderful activity in getting up monument committees, issuing begging circulars, collecting subscriptions, and or-

ganizing competitive exhibitions, it is evident from their gross ignorance of æsthetic conditions and the real wants of modern art that they are not animated by any very high conceptions in the latter respect. In fact, Dr. Schasler seems to think that modern art is quite too business-like in character. What did they know, he indignantly exclaims, in the times of Raphael and Phidias of art-unions and art-exhibitions, of artists' congresses, and especially of those cyclic itinerant exhibitions of associated artists of which there are in Germany more than one hundred, and which have become mere nurseries of mediocrity and factory-work? All respect for day-labor which is conducted artistically, but not for art which proceeds on the basis of day-labor! Then follows a lamentation over chromos and other means of popularizing art. True, there have never been so many art-collections set on foot, so many splendid museums established; but while the most tasteless ballets and spectacles at the theatres, the breakneck feats of the circus, the puppets at a wax-show draw the people in crowds, in the art-galleries we find a few tourists with Baedeker in their hands, a few copying art-students, some loungers and elderly ladies, but only scattered individuals who study with real interest the works of the great masters. Whence, then, this feverish desire for monuments? The motive, it is to be feared, lies in national vanity, or even lower considerations of business, as illustrated by a sarcastic poem of Heine's congratulating the Jews of Frankfurt that a statue of Goethe is about to draw an increase of traffic to the city. Equestrian statues, it is remarked, are reserved for princes, while lesser humanity, even where men like Blücher and Ziethen have won their fame as cavalry generals, must be content with standing figures. The relative advantages of sculpture and painting for realistic and ideal representation are discussed, as also the vexed question of antique and contemporary costume. The vexatious conditions imposed upon artists by committees come in for their share of oburgation. Thus the character of the work, whether bust or statue, is not determined by the nature of the subject, as a general, orator, etc., on the one hand, or poet, musician, or man of science on the other, but by financial considerations. "As only a limited amount of money has been received, the committee is obliged to be satisfied with a bust"; or, again, "as there are over 30,000 dollars available, a full statue with a pedestal is indispensable." Schaper's statue of Goethe is praised, but subjected to the criticism that the head stands at a height of some thirty-six feet; and, in order to see it, one must retire to a distance of at least one hundred and fifty feet, which necessitates, if one would distinguish the features, certainly of some importance in this case, the use of a very good opera-glass. If you approach nearer, you can study the figures on the pedestal, but of Goethe himself you can see only the knee-breeches, stockings, and buckled shoes. Now, are these appendages of the great poet of such extraordinary interest to humanity that they should receive such great prominence to the detriment of the noble head?

—The practical conclusion from this great flourish of trumpets is a little disappointing. From the principles of art, the practice of antiquity, and the nature of materials, our author infers that monuments should take the form of semi-circular halls of columns, or else of paralleled walls, in which the bust or figure of the hero should be surrounded by reliefs setting forth his achievements, or by extracts and pregnant sentences from his writings, and that these monuments should by no means be set up in the marts and busy places of the city, but be withdrawn to regions where running waters, bosky thickets, and groups of trees produce a more appreciative condition of the mind. We can imagine the German intellect finding material for several folio volumes in the discussion of the tenets in this short essay.

—Several important works relating to Italian popular poetry have recently appeared. Two are of the nature of general essays; the others are collections of the poetry itself. The most valuable of the two first-mentioned works is Professor Alessandro D'Ancona's '*La poesia popolare italiana*' (Leghorn. 1878). D'Ancona, who has long been known as an authority in everything relating to the popular literature of his country, devotes the first part of his work to a careful historical survey of Italian popular poetry in its various forms, and establishes the fact of the existence of two schools or classes, one purely popular, the other more artificial and literary. The first runs back to the earliest period in the literary history of Italy; the second is not more than three or four hundred years old. The author then shows the substantial unity of the popular poetry of the whole country, and proves conclusively that it is Sicilian in its origin, the more popular class being transmitted orally at an early date, the artificial one by means of printed or MS. collections. The former spread over Italy after remaining long enough in Tuscany to

acquire the form of that dialect; the latter class was probably translated at Naples into the common language of Italy, and in turn became also popular. Both classes have frequently mingled. D'Ancona regards the tetrastich as the type of the *strambotto* or *rispetto*. In Sicily a second tetrastich was added to the first, in Tuscany the first assumed the refrain, and in North Italy the original type is found in its simplicity. The *stornello* is of Tuscan origin, and was originally a distich, which afterwards assumed an introductory half-line, and finally a third full line. These are a few of the results of D'Ancona's investigations into a new and fascinating field of study. The second work alluded to is Ernolao Rubieri's 'Storia della poesia popolare italiana' (Florence, 1877). In the first part the writer considers Italian popular poetry extrinsically in its types, forms, origins, and phases, in the second in its psychological, and in the third in its moral character. The first part contains some results independently reached by D'Ancona. There is much valuable information in Rubieri's handsome book, but it is buried under a mass of irrelevant details, and the whole work is wanting in a critical method.

—The collections referred to are those of Ive and Guastella. The first, 'Canti popolari istriani, raccolti a Rovigno' (Turin, 1877), forms the fifth volume of the 'Canti e Racconti del popolo italiano,' edited by D. Comparetti and Professor D'Ancona (Turin, 1870-1877. 6 vols.) The editor has prefixed an essay on the phonology of the dialect of Rovigno, and followed in his work the method adopted by the editors of the other volumes of this series. The parallel versions from other parts of Italy give the clearest proof of the unity of Italian popular poetry. Among the wide range of subjects, one of the most interesting is that of *canzoni* and *romanze*, containing nineteen ballads, which, with few exceptions, are versions of those already published by Bernoni, Wolf, Dal Medico, and Marcolaldi. The class of narrative poetry is confined to Northern Italy, and is sparsely represented even there, so that any additions are welcome. The other collection, although not so recent, may not have fallen in the way of our readers who are interested in the subject. It is entitled 'Canti popolari del circondario di Modica,' and was compiled by S. A. Guastella (Modica, 1876). The collection contains one hundred and sixty-seven poems in the Sicilian dialect (*strambotti* and *stornelli*), with an introduction on the pronunciation and grammar of the sub-dialects of the former county of Modica. Of more general interest is an essay on the customs of the county, containing much that will interest the student of popular customs and usages. An exhaustive review of this portion of the work, by F. Liebrecht, will be found in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, vol. i. p. 434-442. We may mention here an interesting study by the same author, entitled 'L'Antico Carnevale della Contea di Modica' (Modica, 1877), in which he has brought together all the old customs formerly connected with the observance of the carnival.

STANLEY'S 'THROUGH THE DARK CONTINENT.'*

MR. STANLEY'S remarkable record of the greatest feat of exploration of recent times falls naturally into the two main divisions indicated in his title and preserved in his maps; and although his lake journeys occupied nearly twice the time of his descent of the Congo, but a small portion of the second volume is reserved for the circumnavigation of Tanganika, so that here, too, "lake" and "river" practically define the two parts of the narrative. Mr. Stanley's prefatory summary of the discoveries of his predecessors in this field, from Burton and Speke to Cameron, is a proper reminder of the continuity of African exploration during the past twenty years. This is, however, brought still more vividly to mind by his employment of Zanzibar men who had served Speke and Livingstone, and himself on his former expedition, as well as by his meeting with Mtesa, the powerful ruler of Uganda, on the north shore of Victoria Nyanza—"the man whom Speke had beheld as a boy, and who was described by him through about two hundred pages of his book as a vain, foolish, peevish, headstrong youth and a murderous despot." In this monarch, and in Mr. Stanley's stay at his court and camp, by far the greatest interest of the first volume centres. It is hard to say whether he was more of a hindrance or a help to his guest, for whom, as for all white men, he affected the most ardent liking, and whom he certainly entertained with royal liberality. To Mr. Stanley's appearance in the rôle of a missionary he made so little objection that he speedily announced himself a convert, abjured the Koran, and devoured an epitome of the Scriptures which the indefatigable explorer found time to

prepare for him in the midst of the naval campaign against the rebellious Wavuma, and in the intervals of devising for his savage friend a sort of monitor by which the war was speedily ended. When they took final leave of each other, Mtesa had just begun the erection of a Christian church. Mr. Stanley does not deceive himself as to the value of this conversion, but he judges, perhaps rightly, that he laid a good foundation for future missionary endeavor, provided it is not confined to religious exhortation but is accompanied by substantial instruction in the arts of civilization. The approaches to Uganda by way of Egypt are comparatively easy and safe, though M. Linant de Bellefonds, who arrived at Mtesa's just after Stanley, was, on returning from a subsequent visit, overcome by marauding tribes.

Mtesa's subjects are estimated by Stanley at 2,775,000. The mode of calculation may not satisfy Herren Behm and Wagner, but the reader cannot fail to be impressed by the description of the forces mustered by land and by sea for the subjugation of the Wavuma. "First with his legion came Mkwenda, who guards the frontier between the Katonga valley and Willimiesi against the Wanyoro." His command might be "roughly numbered at 30,000 warriors and camp-followers, and though the path yesterday was a mere goat-track, the rush of this legion on the half-trot soon crushed out a broad avenue." So the Homeric tale goes on until 250,000 are reckoned. "The Uganda war fleet numbered 325 large and small canoes, out of which only 230 might be said to be really effective for war." To man these last required 8,600 men; and, adding the warriors to the crews, Mr. Stanley concludes that "Mtesa can float a force of from 16,000 to 20,000 on Lake Victoria for purposes of war." When one takes into consideration the thousand miles of shore of this noble body of water, with its numerous islands and large population, one gets an idea of a canoe fleet which recalls the palmy days of the South Seas, but which the Congo can perhaps surpass, as the expedition found to its cost.

The chief incident between Stanley's departure from Uganda and his arrival at Ujiji was his penetrating to Beatrice Gulf on what he supposed to be the Albert Nyanza, but which turns out to be an independent and probably larger sheet, with unknown outlet and connections, called the Muta Nzigé. The temptation to coast around this, too, as around the Victoria, was strong, but the tribes were too hostile, and a more important task lay beyond. On his way southward to Tanganika he explored part of the Alexandra Nile, connecting the Alexandra Nyanza with Lake Victoria, and therefore one of the Nile sources which has yet to be worked out. At Karagwé he was hospitably entertained by King Rumanika, an old friend of Speke and Grant. Still later he encountered the guerilla chieftain Mirambo, who had been a terror to him on his first expedition, but whose person now "quite captivated me, for he was a thorough African gentleman in appearance, very different from my conception of the terrible bandit who had struck his telling blows at native chiefs and Arabs with all the rapidity of a Frederic the Great environed by foes." With him Stanley went through the ceremony of blood-brotherhood, so potent among even the cruellest tribes of equatorial Africa.

Lake Tanganika was reached on the 27th of May, 1876, the departure from Bagamoyo having taken place November 17, 1874. Even at Ujiji there were traces of a rise in the lake since his last visit. "I observed," says Stanley, "that three palm-trees, which had stood in the marketplace of Ujiji in November, 1871, were now about 100 feet in the lake, and that the sand beach over which Livingstone and I took our morning walks was over 200 feet in the lake." The circumnavigation afterwards achieved, for the first time, confirmed this change of level, and Mr. Stanley was convinced that the lower half of the lake was originally distinct from the upper, which was joined to it by some great cataclysm; while his exploration of the Lukuga, which Cameron thought to be certainly the lake's outlet, showed that a rise of a few feet more would make it so, and that the Tanganika may yet within the experience of the present generation drain into the Congo.

The Luabala at Nyangwé was reached October 27, 1876. On the 28th of December, after parting with an Arab escort whose endurance had not been proof against the tremendous hardships of travel along the densely wooded banks in the Uregga country, Stanley committed himself and his devoted band to the great stream itself, not without misgivings which were soon to be justified. We despair by any art of our own of painting in a few words the trials of this unprecedented voyage. From beginning to end it was a gauntlet, in which, with a few breathing-spells, the alternative was to fight or to starve—or to be drowned. They tasted of all these bitternesses. Fearing to travel by night because of cataracts, they more than once had to choose between death by this mode and at the

* 'Through the Dark Continent; or, The Sources of the Nile around the Great Lakes of Equatorial Africa, and down the Livingstone River to the Atlantic Ocean. By Henry M. Stanley.' With 10 maps and 150 woodcuts. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 522, 566. New York: Harper & Bros. 1878.

hands of cannibals who frequent the falls as fishers, and who forbade a landing. For hundreds of miles the sound of war-drums in the thickets of mainland and islands accompanied their progress as if one incessant alarm, while at every stage from either side of the river the advance was blocked or flanked by war-canoes, and sometimes, as at the assumed mouth of the Welle, these naval encounters were as formidable as those on Lake Victoria. The spear and the poisoned arrow of their foes were suddenly succeeded by fire-arms; and when, after their last battle, the expedition encountered amiable and friendly tribes, there was still a climax of misery, for those near the mouth of the river were destitute of humanity, and would not save the expedition from perishing of hunger by accepting their currency of cloth, beads, and wire in exchange for food. How the rapids were descended and the cataracts circumvented, with what loss of boats and of precious lives, including the last of the three white companions with whom Stanley had set out from Bagamoyo; how timely relief from Boma gave strength to reach the confines of civilization; how in the reaction of complete rest and full living many succumbed who had endured on the march the terrific strain upon mind and body—cannot be retold here. If Mr. Stanley's nerve, foresight, judgment, tact, constancy, and powers of discipline and leadership were ever admirable they were so in the last twelve months of his thousand days of travel. When to the immense care which devolved upon him in snatching 115 lives from the perils of the mighty river, we add his attention to those scientific observations which made the passage something more than a mere foolhardy adventure, it is impossible not to regard him as one of the extraordinary men of our time.

Did space permit, we might indulge indefinitely in extracts from this intensely interesting work. Mr. Stanley's descriptions of the aborigines are chiefly incidental, but in chapter xv. of volume i. he expatiates at some length, and very agreeably, on life and manners in Uganda. The people here are well clothed in a brown bark cloth of their own manufacture; their houses and courts are well built of thatch; their spears are perhaps the best in Africa. They have carved stools, a tray for native backgammon, earthen and wicker ware; the banana furnishes them food, drink, table-cloths, wrapping paper, fence materials, sponges, cord, shields, hats, even canoes. They have a large variety of musical instruments, including drums, banjos, horns, flutes, and guitars. They often draw upon the ground to help out an oral description. West of Tanganyika, in Uregga, the habitations are even finer, with shelves for fuel and netting for crockery; there are shapely spoons, water-cane settees, curved benches and carved stools; skull-caps of goat or monkey or even leopard skin. Their smithies produce as artistic articles as those on the eastern watershed—hammers, axes, war-batchets, spears, knives, swords, wire, iron balls and beads, armlets, leglets, etc. Though cannibals, the Waregga not less than the Waganda feel the need of a backgammon tray. Among the tribe called the Wavinza copper abounds and is worked up. The Baswa of the Stanley Cataracts are again excellent smiths, adding anvils and fish-hooks to the more usual wrought work. Their knives have "sheaths of wood covered with goatskin, and ornamented with polished iron bands." Iron bells, curiously carved whistles, wooden idols, palm baskets, and clay pipes are also made by them. The Wenya, at the lower end of the same falls (seventh cataract), had square wooden chests for their treasure of beads and shells; their paddles were beautifully made of a mahogany-like wood; large and shapely earthen jars were common in their houses, for holding palm-butter; ivory they had in quantity beyond their use, and war-horns and pestles were got from it. In the manufacture of ivory and iron the inhabitants of the mouth of the Welle surpassed all the other tribes met with on the Congo, while they were equally conspicuous for their wood-carving—"great and small idols, stools of ingenious pattern, double benches, walking-staffs, paddles, flutes, grain-mortars, mallets, drums, clubs, troughs, scoops and canoe-balers, paddles, porridge spoons, etc."—and for their pottery. Rubber was occasionally met with, once as the balls of drum-sticks. All along the river, at short intervals, in the clearings were market-places having fixed days for the exchange of goods by the tribes living opposite each other.

But we must break off, forbearing even to speak of the scenery, so singular on Tanganyika, so varied and grand on the Congo, where between two cataracts in the main stream one may see on either hand tributary streams of no mean size emptying themselves over precipices hundreds of feet in height. From this pleasant theme, on which it would be safe to expand, inasmuch as many of the views are based on photographs, we turn with reluctance to notice the accusations brought against Mr. Stanley because of certain conflicts with

the natives on Lake Victoria—a subject we have already considered on occasion of Colonel Yule's protest. There can be no question that the present account of these occurrences differs from that of the contemporary letters to the *Daily Telegraph* and *Herald*, and gives them an aspect quite favorable to the narrator. Moreover, it is easier to lend faith to the hasty newspaper despatch (for a truthful report of *animus* at least) than to the cooler diary, or to the cold narrative before us. On this particular head, therefore, we still think that Mr. Stanley must be judged by himself, and that he cannot probably escape censure; but to one who regards his entire course and his principle of action towards the savage peoples whom he met with, the rare instances in which he may have let the spirit of revenge for injuries wantonly inflicted get the better of him will leave no lasting stain on his character. We are impressed here, as in his 'How I Found Livingstone,' with his humane regard for inferior beings, and with his uniform attempt to deal with them as if they recognized the same standards and were actuated by the same motives with himself. If it be objected to this that no European has survived to contradict his record of what took place, we answer that his very success is proof of a general adherence to the policy of abstaining from violence, or the show of it, when it could be avoided; of paying for what he received, and of purchasing the right of way when exacted. His fulfilment of his promise to accompany his followers back to Zanzibar is another manifestation of the same trait—we do not hesitate to say, a touching-manifestation. Finally, if further evidence of his truthfulness is wanted, we point to the unmistakable naïveté of his narration; and for a sample of this, in conjunction with a (for him) unusual degree of literary art, we would cite the account of the degraded people of Uhombo on pp. 75-77 of volume ii. We think no one can read it without being convinced of the genuineness of the feeling expressed, and that, in what concerns his attitude towards the negro, Mr. Stanley is a worthy disciple of the lamented Livingstone.

PRIMARY INSTRUCTION AND APPRENTICESHIP IN FRANCE.*

IN France it is estimated that the question of apprenticeship and primary instruction interests two millions of families, representing five millions of children. There has been a school of manual instruction in actual operation in the Rue Tournefort in Paris for several years, and M. Salicis, who has been actively engaged in presenting its claims and forwarding its interests, now submits a brief summary of the reasons for his faith that this is the system needed to supplement existing schemes of education. He cites the authoritative opinion of the school authorities of Paris, that professional and technical training is perfectly compatible with primary instruction, and he acknowledges the compliment of a request from the Chamber of Commerce of Crefeld, one of the busy manufacturing towns of the Rhine, for leave to translate into German his account of the methods and results of the school in the Rue Tournefort; he has also the satisfaction of adducing the report made to the Chamber of Deputies in favor of a law to provide manual schools for apprentices, in which the three years' experience of his school is used to justify the belief that at a small expense the same system could be extended to the secondary schools throughout France.

The events of 1870 have given birth in France to a new world of ideas on education, and the municipal governments are anxious to secure a voice and share in the control of the schools, instead of leaving them, as of old, to be worked as part and parcel of the great centralized system, in which all impulse came from Paris and the one condition of existence was perfect uniformity. Local self-government is gradually gaining a foothold, and special schools are being established to give instruction in subjects of local interest. Besançon has its school of instruction in watch-making, Brest for sailors' orphans in training for the navy, Havre for wood-working, Mulhouse for cotton machinery, Lyons for silk-weaving, while Paris, Châlons, Aix, and Angers all have schools of arts and trades for the training of good foremen and advanced workmen. The boy of good family in France starts at six and goes regularly through his boarding-school and his college up to sixteen or eighteen, ready then to begin his professional studies in law, medicine, engineering, or whatever other career he may choose; and there are technical schools in every branch and of a high degree of excellence, which give all the special training needed, while the faithful adhesion to hereditary pursuits and the steady practice of patronage, or at least reciprocity in advancing the children of friendly families, make the business of gaining a livelihood comparatively safe

* Enseignement Primaire et Apprentissage. Par G. Salicis. 2ème édition. Paris Librairie Sandoz et Fischbacher. 1878. 12mo, pp. 100.

and certain for the better classes. But workmen see a very different career for their children: the *crèche* for the babes, the *asile* for the children at three years of age, where they are cared for during the day, taught to play, to sing, to spell, and to count—the real primary school of the little Parisians who have been fortunate enough to come under the protection supplied by the late Mme. Pape-Carpentier or Mme. Juillerat—then the public school where the children are admitted at six or seven and leave at twelve or thirteen, to go to work at whatever trade or pursuit opens to them its slender resources.

In Paris the primary schools consist usually of classes of 130 or more, under a perfectly uniform method of instruction, with little or no opportunity of adapting the lessons either to the scholar's capacity or to any previous elementary training he may have got, and working away from nine till four in the same dull round of simple, prescribed books. In the country, matters are not much better, for the one teacher has to treat all his pupils alike, and as in some districts, notably Brittany, not one in a hundred can read or speak French, the Catechism (Breton on one page, French on the other) has to serve as a bridge between the maternal tongue and the national language prescribed by law. With such training, of course, there is small fitness for work of any high order of excellence, and it is the boys who come from such schools who supply the shoemakers and tailors, the hairdressers and confectioners, the cooks and waiters—all those whose first business in life is to get a livelihood. At twenty this immense proportion of the population is expected to furnish all working trades with good journeymen, although there is practically no apprenticeship, no technical training, no help in the choice of a trade. At thirty the clever and industrious have made headway, and then they wonder why, ten years too late, they are admitted to technical schools that ought to have been open to them at the outset. In Paris there ought to be provision for the training of fifty thousand apprentices, and there are not even schools enough to put the school population on a footing with that of Germany: there 17.5-10 per cent. of the inhabitants go to school, while in France, by the same ratio, there ought to be 3,700 schools where there are now only 300. In the United States, again, there are 7,000,000 scholars, with 200,000 teachers, an average of thirty-five pupils for each. To equal this, Paris should have 10,000 teachers instead of its present 1,200. Out of its school population of 200,000, 120,000 only are provided with school facilities. France has 4,000,000 children who must earn their own livelihood at an early age by hard work, and yet from three to thirteen hardly any of them are taught anything that can possibly be of use to them. Indeed, what they do learn merely gives them a hearty dislike of work: the boys want to be clerks, the girls to be shop-women. There is no reason why a boy of twelve should not learn the elements of mechanics just as easily as anything else, nor why a girl at the same age should not be taught the useful arts that adorn and often support a household.

Such was the belief of those who sought and obtained from the municipal council a grant of a thousand dollars to the school in the Rue Tournefort: and this being eked out by gifts of tools and models, a system of technical instruction was begun. It aims to fit school-children of twelve and thirteen to enter a workshop or a trade, three years later, with some knowledge of the business. The principal employments are for art-workers, modellers, sculptors, etc.; wood-turners, carpenters, cabinet-makers, etc.; metal-workers, locksmiths, blacksmiths, tool-makers; and for all of these there is a year of common instruction in drawing, free-hand and sketching from models in relief, modelling in clay, etc., followed by a system adapted to the special calling of the different classes into which the pupils are divided. The school has been in operation eighteen months and has earned one-quarter of its annual outlay by the proceeds of the handiwork of its pupils. In Havre an apprentices' school of the same kind has earned enough to supply its pupils with their meals free of charge: while both there and in the Rue Tournefort it is believed that with successive classes there will be still greater saving on the present annual cost of thirty dollars a year, excluding rent or interest of premises and of special constructions, but including the proportion of salaries, purchases, machinery, models, and the earnings of the pupils, which average ten dollars apiece. With the growth of schools there would be a saving in salaries of technical instructors, for then they would be constantly employed in teaching, and the pupils would produce proportionately more. M. Salicis thinks that four hundred thousand dollars ought to procure Paris ten schools for boys and as many more for girls, each with fifty apprentices at least. In three years these would turn out six thousand trained apprentices, in ten years sixty thousand workmen and women, with all the advantages of sound education, moral and technical,

added to the clever originality of the Parisian *ouvrier* and *ouvrière*: and if the same system was applied in the country, France would be filled with agriculturists and vine-dressers and fruit-growers, who would bring scientific and technical knowledge to the industry that has already saved the country from bankruptcy and converted its resources into a national loan outstripping the imagination of early days.

A Book of Musical Anecdotes from every Available Source. By Frederick Crowest, author of 'The Great Tone Poets.' In two volumes. (London: Richard Bentley & Son. 1878).—In his two volumes Mr. Crowest has collected no less than five hundred and nine anecdotes relating to composers, singers, and instrumentalists. The stories are old and new, good, bad, and indifferent; and the book, as a whole, neither much better nor much worse than a random collection of the kind is apt to be. The chief difficulty with such a book is that the common tie of interest or association among the stories is a very loose one, and Mr. Crowest has not succeeded altogether in correcting this defect. Many of his anecdotes might better have been left out; some are flat, and in many cases, when a number of them relate to one person, they are not of such a nature as to throw valuable light on his life or character. For example, we have looked through the index to find the anecdotes which relate to two well-known musical characters, Paganini and Moscheles. Both were musicians in their different ways of very wide reputation, and there is in existence plenty of material out of which to draw for anecdote. Moscheles is mentioned in vol. i. in five places, and in vol. ii. in half a dozen more. The allusions in vol. i. do not count for much, for they are merely incidental. It is in the second volume, which includes the portion of the work given up to instrumentalists, that most of the anecdotes properly relating to him are collected, and they are certainly a poor substitute for the delightful volume of memoirs from which they appear to have been taken. Mr. Crowest has spoiled many of his anecdotes (one of these among the number) by reflections of a moral and inappropriate nature, and has also been at the unnecessary pains of finding five hundred and nine descriptive titles for them, few of which are of a sort to whet the appetite of the reader. One of the Moscheles anecdotes gives an amusing account of how that composer, by a happy device, prevented a close neighbor from making his evening miserable by strumming Weber's "Invitation à la Valse" on a piano. Introducing himself as having been "allured" into paying a visit by his neighbor's playing, he declares that he too has studied the "Invitation," and asks whether his host will allow him to play it for him. He sits down and rattles it off in the wildest manner at a tearing pace, introducing double octaves at frequent intervals to increase the effect. These musical pyrotechnics fill the beginner with despair, and he sighs his regret at the impossibility of his ever learning to play in such a way. Moscheles assures him that by hard work he may accomplish it, and bids him good-night, having secured his object, a quiet evening: for the neighbor, despairing of equalling the brilliant playing he has heard, abandons his piano for the time. It would seem as if reflections on this story might be spared. But Mr. Crowest does not feel that his duty to the reader has been performed until he has recorded the following observations: "But how about the poor student? Did Moscheles' severity damp or destroy the man's aspirations? It might have done so; whereas a few words of sound advice and encouragement would have been a stronger revenge for the unintentional affront, and at all events would have been a little act of generosity, none the less noble because trivial." Of Paganini, as of Moscheles, there are a number of anecdotes, some of them entertaining, but on the whole not presenting as good an idea of the violinist as we have seen within a year or two in a hack magazine article.

On the other hand, there are in Mr. Crowest's two volumes many amusing stories, and some collections of curious and instructive musical facts, as, for instance, those (vol. i. p. 188) relating to musical plagiarism or imitation, which suggest some interesting questions with relation to musical copyright. Should a composer have copyright in an air, which is a mere combination of notes arranged in a particular order, when a variation of key and time without any change in the notes or their order will change its whole character? Mr. Crowest mentions a popular song which he says is merely Mendelssohn's "Hear my Prayer" travestied "in minor key and triple time." The same thing frequently occurs in orchestral music. Thomas's orchestra at the Central Park Garden used frequently to play as a march an air which was really a simple German love-song—its character completely altered by a change of time. Instances might easily be multiplied. Non-musical juries would in these cases be apt to fly at once to the conclusion that a gross act of plagiarism

had been committed; while people who had a musical education would often find it hard to decide whether there was not sufficient originality in the change to justify it. When we come to airs which merely "remind us" of others, we become involved in still more difficult problems.

Among Mr. Crowest's stories we find several old friends and many new acquaintances. He records again Swift's inimitable "Mantua, *ve miserrimum vinum Cremonae*," the quotation applied by him to a lady whose train had swept a violin to its destruction; and Sheridan's never-to-be-forgotten ship-sign suggested by Michael Kelly's going into the wine-business; "Michael Kelly, composer of wine and importer of music." Some of the best stories are those told at the expense of unmusical people, as, for instance, No. 422 (there are a whole family of anecdotes like it), in which the rich and miserly old gentleman who is giving his friends a musical entertainment is greatly disgusted at the violin solo, and enquires what the rest of the band are doing. He is told that it is a *pizzicato* on one instrument; on which he directs the trumpets to *pizzicato* too. A story not strictly musical is that of a lady more familiar with the interior of a theatre than with that of a church, who, on entering St. Pancras' to hear a popular clergyman preach, and being struck with the size of the congregation, exclaims, "Good heavens! what a house!—if it's all money." The possibility of churches being filled, as theatres sometimes are, with "paper" is an idea which we have never seen suggested before. As a contribution to the discussion which raged a year or two ago on the subject of the relation existing between the piano-manufacturers and performers, the story of the ingenious composer who managed his business so well as to get a new piano as a gift from a prince who compassionated his poverty, securing at the same time the "usual commission" from the makers on the ground that the prince's purchase had been made on his "recommendation," is as good as anything in the book.

Alcohol and the State: A Discussion of the Problem of Law as applied to the Liquor Traffic. By Robert C. Pitman, LL.D., Associate Justice of the Superior Court of Massachusetts. (New York: National Temperance Society and Publication House. 1877.)—Judge Pitman divides his book into two parts, the first of which he calls "Alcohol *vs.* the State," the second "The State *vs.* Alcohol." In the first of them he shows that if Alcohol and the State are left to fight out their battle by themselves, alcohol gets the best of it; that it injures the public health, breeds pauperism and crime, vitiates the human stock, and is the "universal ally of evil" and the "universal antagonist of good." There is no doubt that much of what is contained in this first part is perfectly true, though the author pushes his point so extravagantly as to deprive his argument of a great deal of its force. It would not be difficult without taking any greater license with reason and logic than Judge Pitman frequently does to advance it a step further—to the point of absurdity. There can be no question, for instance, that idleness, of which he says (p. 45) intemperance is the main cause, is itself, in its relation to intemperance, quite as much a cause as an effect. That is, if idleness could be stopped altogether nine-tenths of drinking would cease also. Hence, it might be said to be the duty of the State to interfere with lazy people and compel them to use their time well. It is to no purpose to reply that a man has the right to be idle; he has not the right to do anything which endangers the well-being of the State. So of luxury in dress, it would be impossible to estimate the misery and crime caused by the passion of women for dress. It forces the men on whom they are dependent for support to waste their lives, and frequently to imperil their souls, for the mere gratification of feminine vanity. If the fraudulent trustees and defaulting bank presidents whose first misstep could be traced to a desire to gratify their wives' passion for dress could be counted, we fear the ghastly array would throw out into startling relief the immorality of the milliner's occupation. Neither Judge Pitman nor anybody else proposes to prohibit Worth from plying his trade; but his language is so extravagant, and his argument pushed so far, that the necessity of some such prohibition might be without great difficulty deduced from what he puts forward as his premises, by a process at least analogous to reasoning. He not only attributes to the liquor traffic a capital agency in causing poverty, idleness, and a vitiation of the stock; but (p. 46) he discovers in it the cause of boys running away from the public schools, and declares (pp. 63, 66, 67) that it threatens to destroy the very existence of the Sabbath, of the schools, of the Church, and finally of the State itself. More than this, he discovers a metaphysical potency in the traffic which threatens the fundamental relation of cause and effect, for he declares (p. 79) that it is itself the cause of drinking.

In the second part of the book he shows that the law is the only agency

which can curb the evil; that licensing laws have always proved a failure; that prohibition is a success; that it keeps down the traffic, promotes temperance, and increases general prosperity. The statistics in the case of Maine are arrayed in proof of this, but we must say that they seem to us to prove very little. Maine is a thinly settled State with no very large cities, and under such circumstances the law is, of course, more easily enforced than elsewhere. A great deal of what Judge Pitman says, however, as to license laws we have no doubt is true. The facts about licensing and prohibition are, we believe, these; that with the general want of training and sense of responsibility of our State and city officials no license law is enforced, while when public opinion on the subject becomes so strong as to demand some enforcement of the law, the prohibitory law which in those cases gets itself upon the statute-books works to a great extent like a really effective license law. In other words, we get a real license system by what is called a prohibitory system. The fact that in large cities the license system does not work at all was not long ago illustrated in New York. Probably in this city, if the traffic were absolutely prohibited and a premium put upon the suppression of it, the result would be the extinction of a certain class of objectionable venders and the carrying on of the trade in respectable quarters—as, for instance, at hotels—secretly. Of course a prohibitory law in New York is impossible.

We would examine Judge Pitman's statistics with care did they seem to us of much value. We are perfectly willing to concede that the law may be enforced, and may have a beneficial effect. So may sumptuary laws; but they are objectionable for all that. The picture, too, drawn of the State of Maine before the law, in which we are called upon to grasp the horrid thought of a community solely engaged in the conversion of the primeval forest into New-England rum, the rum being all "drunk on the premises," is too shocking for contemplation. We have no doubt Maine is a virtuous State now, though some of her politicians are said to be bad men; but could she ever have been as bad as Judge Pitman makes her out, even in the bad old times before the law?

Goethe. By A. Hayward. [Foreign Classics for English Readers.] (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—There was room for a new English biography of Goethe. The work of Lewes, even in its revised and abridged form, is open to grave criticism, chiefly by reason of its tone, at once adulatory and apologetic. The German works by Viehoff, Schaefer, and Goedeke are too often dry and unattractive in style, and Grimm's 'Lectures,' by far the ablest contribution, is more in the nature of an essay or disquisition than of a biographical narrative. We looked for the appearance of the promised biography by Hayward, therefore, with much interest. To declare, without further qualification, that our hopes have been rudely disappointed would do injustice, perhaps, to the author. We must credit him with honest intentions, careful research, and clearness of statement; and by virtue of these qualities he has succeeded in producing a readable book, which will doubtless commend itself to the ordinary reader as a fair sample of what a concise popular biography ought to be. Still, these qualities alone do not make up a biographer, least of all the biographer of a world-genius like Goethe. Whoever presumes to write his life should be familiar with all his writings, both great and small; should be completely at home in the wide field of Goethe-literature; should understand the poet in all his relations to Germany and to Europe in general; should sympathize with him, should comprehend him in his many-sidedness. These qualifications are each and all wanting in Mr. Hayward. He has attempted to describe for us a great man—nay, one of the greatest men that ever lived—by giving us, so to speak, his dimensions in feet and inches, the color of his eyes and hair, his weight in pounds avoirdupois.

We need cite only one defect to make his error of method palpable. There are in the book two hundred and twenty-two pages. Of these, one hundred and thirty-one are taken up with Goethe's life before removing to Weimar. In other words, much more than one-half is assigned to the first twenty-five years, and the remaining fifty-seven years, rich in everything that can make life attractive, are treated as a mere after-thought. As for Mr. Hayward's ability to comprehend Goethe in his relations to his times, one has only to contrast the chapter headed, "The Italian Journey, etc.," with the corresponding sections in Grimm's 'Vorlesungen.' To every reader endowed with a sympathetic soul the contrast will be almost painful. We have neither the space nor the inclination to follow Mr. Hayward through his dry analysis of Goethe's writings, and to rectify his judgments one by one. Suffice it to say that they are all conceived in the spirit of forty years

ago. The efforts of men like Grimm, Düntzer, Schaefer, Bernays, Carriere, Von Loeper, have evidently made no impression upon Mr. Hayward's mind. To him Goethe is somebody to differ from, to attack, to find fault with; somebody who somehow had greatness thrust upon him without truly deserving it. He has never pondered the saying of Chateaubriand, that it is useless to struggle against the yoke imposed upon us by creative genius. Instead of accepting Goethe as he was and making the most of him, Mr. Hayward is ever bent upon convincing us that Goethe ought to have acted or written differently. Such treatment of the founder of modern German literature is unpardonable; it shows that the biographer is unable to rise to the height of his theme. Of course, where this requisite is wanting, its absence cannot be atoned for by mere accuracy in the use of names, dates, and facts. The life of Goethe is not

a mere almanac; it is a stirring and fruitful epoch in the growth of a great nation. One might apply to Mr. Hayward Mephisto's sneer:

"Er hat die Theile in seiner Hand,
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